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AUTHOR Asher, V., Ed.; Kline, L., Ed.
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ABSTRACT

This course syllabus presents information on Communications II, a course offered at Pikes Peak Community College to provide students with practice in communication, while emphasizing vocabulary and basic writing techniques. A course outline is first presented, including a course description, a statement of general objectives, and a list of units. Next, specific objectives for each of the course's four units are presented. The bulk of the document is comprised of descriptions of each of the following course units: (1) Word Usage, which focuses on pronunciation, syllabic division, definitions, labels and idioms; (2) Sentence Structure, which covers subjects, verbs, clauses and phrases, types of sentences, and restrictive and non-restrictive clauses; (3) Organization and Paragraph Development, which deals with limiting the topic, thesis statements, outlining, paragraph development, paragraph structure, transitions, revision and summary; and (4) Basic and/or Final Report, which includes formatting guidelines, final report requirements, and examples. Each unit summary includes informational text, examples, and exercises. (LAL)

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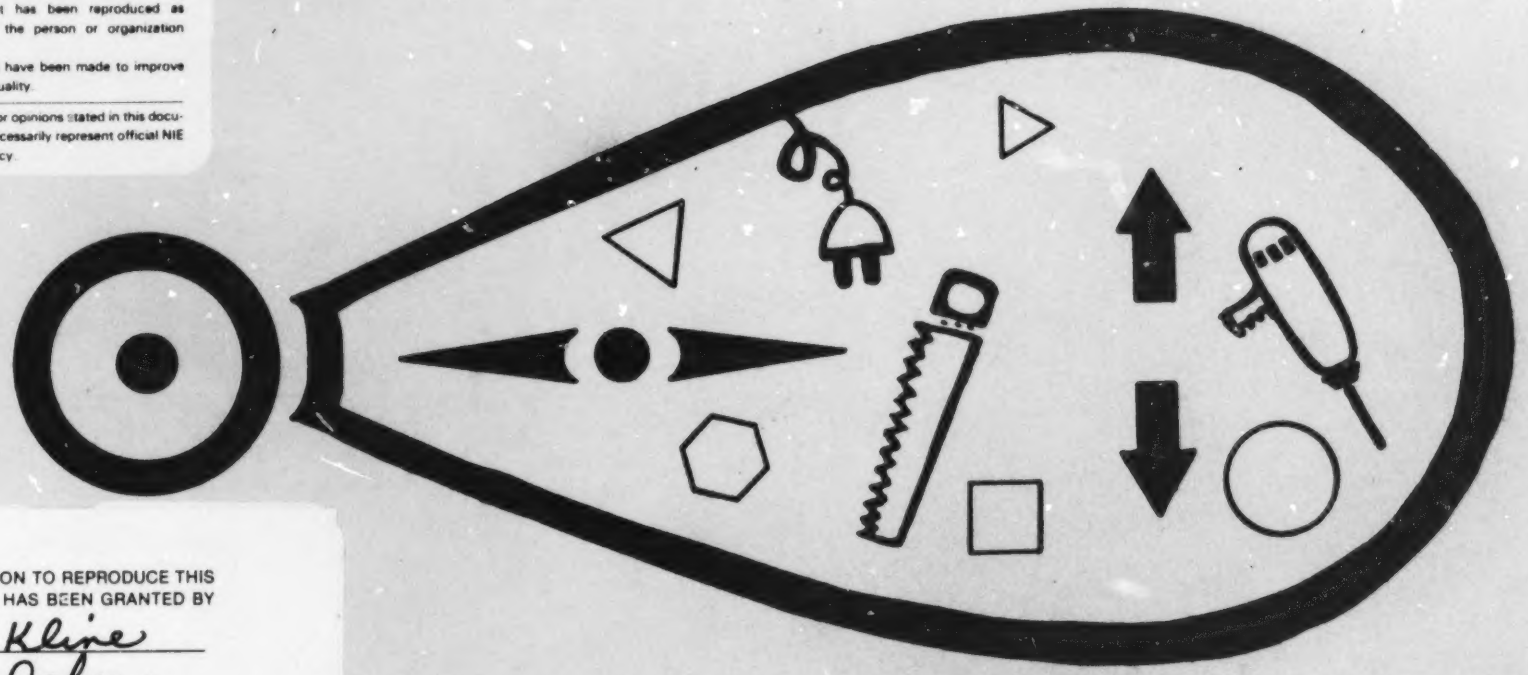

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COMMUNICATION II

A BASIC REPORT WRITER'S GUIDE

JC 850 471

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V. Asher, L. Kline, eds.
Revised September, 1983

PIKES PEAK COMMUNITY COLLEGE
COMMUNICATIONS AND HUMANITIES DIVISION
COM 102, COMMUNICATION II

9/83

COURSE OUTLINE

Course Description:

This course continues practice in communication with emphasis on vocabulary and basic writing techniques. Practice is provided in presenting an idea in writing that is concise, complete, and organized. The course includes informal, short basic report writing.

General Objectives:

After completing Communication II, the student will be able to:

1. use a dictionary as an effective tool for preparing written communication.
2. write effective and grammatically correct sentences.
3. Organize a topic in preparation for writing.
4. write cohesive paragraphs that are adequately developed.
5. write a basic report (final exam).

Units:		Evaluation	Schedule
I.	Word Usage	15%	2 weeks
II.	Sentence Structure	20%	3 weeks
III.	Organization and Paragraph Development	30%	3 weeks
IV.	Basic Report and/or Final Report	35%	2 weeks
		100%	10 weeks

NOTE: Withdrawing from any class to avoid receiving a final grade of U is the responsibility of the student and not of the instructor.

Specific Objectives:

Unit I: Word Usage

At the completion of this unit, the student should be able to:

1. discuss "people meaning" (connotation) and "dictionary meaning" (denotation) of words.

2. identify abridged and unabridged dictionaries.

3. use the dictionary to find the following information concerning words:

   a. pronunciation
   b. hyphenation and syllabic division
   c. spelling
   d. definition
   e. synonyms, antonyms, and homophones
   f. restrictive and identity labels

4. spell correctly by using basic spelling guides and recognize when to use a dictionary in checking the spelling of a word.

5. define the following terms:

   abbreviations
   abridged
   acronyms
   antonyms
   biographical entry
   citation reading
   connotation
   denotation
   diacritical marks
   entry word
   etymology
   geographical entry
   guide words
   hyphenated words
   hyphenation
   idioms
   inflected forms
   lexicographer
   numbered definitions
   order of definitions
   order of entries
   preferred spelling
   labels:
     (1) field of knowledge
     (2) parts of speech
     (3) plural
     (4) restrictive:
         -nonstandard
         -informal
         -slang
         -vulgar
         -obsolete
         -archaic
         -rare
         -poetic
         -regional
         -British
         -foreign language
   pronunciation
   pronunciation key
   schwa
   stress marks
   superscript numbers
   synonyms
   thesaurus
   usage

Unit II: Sentence Structure

At the completion of this unit, the student should be able to:

1. identify the requirements of a complete sentence.
2. recognize and use correctly the subject of a sentence.
3. recognize and employ verbs in a sentence.
4. identify the four types of sentences according to construction.
5. recognize and avoid comma-splices.
6. recognize and avoid sentence fragments.
7. recognize and avoid run-on sentences.
8. define the following terms:

agreement:
  (1) subject/verb
  (2) pronoun/antecedent
clause:
  (1) dependent:
      -restrictive
      -nonrestrictive
  (2) independent
conjunction:
  (1) coordinating
  (2) subordinating
parallelism
phrase
point of view
pronoun:
  (1) relative
  (2) "you" understood
sentence:
  (1) simple
  (2) compound
  (3) complex
  (4) compound/complex
sentence errors:
  (1) comma splice
  (2) fragment
  (3) run-on
subject
verb

Unit III: Organization and Paragraph Development

At the completion of this unit, the student should be able to:

1. demonstrate the ability to select and limit the topic of a given report.
2. specifically state the thesis for a given report.
3. recognize and use the sentence outline.
4. enumerate an outline in a logical manner.
5. write paragraphs that are unified, coherent, and adequately developed according to intended emphasis.
6. include appropriate transitional devices for all paragraphs.
7. recognize the three basic parts of paragraphs.

8. demonstrate a consistent point-of-view in writing.

9. master the ability to write in the third person and/or the impersonal point-of-view.

10. organize a report into the three categories of introduction, body, and conclusion.

11. define the following terms and/or describe the processes:

Organization:
- (1) audience (reader)
- (2) limitation of topic
- (3) purpose
- (4) thesis
- (5) outline format:
  - -main heads
  - -subheads
  - -proofs

Paragraphs:
- (1) introductory
- (2) body
- (3) concluding
- (4) point-of-view
- (5) proofreading

Paragraphs (cont)
- (6) sentences:
  - -topic
  - -supporting
  - -concluding
- (7) structure:
  - -coherence
  - -completeness
  - -emphasis
  - -unity
- (8) tone
- (9) transitions
- (10) words
  - -abstract
  - -concrete
  - -specific

Unit IV: Basic Report and/or Final Report

At the completion of this unit, the student should be able to:

1. write a report from a previously developed outline that was used to organize a topic for writing.

2. include in this report an introductory paragraph, developing paragraphs, and a concluding paragraph.

3. communicate effectively in writing through the use of variety, parallelism, and emphasis.

4. demonstrate the ability to write effectively through correct spelling, punctuation, and usage.

5. follow an acceptable format in structuring the report.

NOTE: Cheating in any respect will not be tolerated, of course, and if cheating is evident, a first offense will result in a "U" for the particular assignment. If a second instance of cheating is evident, the student(s) involved will be dropped from class with a "U" grade.

UNIT I: WORD USAGE

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS:

Every report writer must have a certain amount of basic knowledge of the language in order to put his ideas on paper intelligibly. Before a final copy of a report is submitted, a great deal of thought goes into its construction. Usage, which relies heavily on use of the dictionary, is an important part of report writing.

People have different meanings for the same word. This is called connotation. Because of connotation, a report writer must be especially careful to choose the word that is precise and exact. The fewer possible meanings that exist for a word, the less likely the reader will get an unwanted meaning. When a writer chooses precise words, he has relied on denotative meaning or dictionary meaning. Denotative words are more effective in report writing.

The report writer may choose to use an unabridged dictionary or an abridged dictionary. Differences do exist. The unabridged dictionary includes all the standard words in a language, and the definitions are usually arranged in historical order. Many shades of meaning are included for each entry. The unabridged dictionary is usually prescriptive in that it is strict about what is correct and incorrect. Most words included in this type of dictionary are "standard," that is, correct for use in formal writing. The unabridged dictionary is very large, so writers may find it impractical.

However, an abridged dictionary is the one chosen by most writers. It is sometimes called a desk dictionary. Abridged means that some words are left out. It does include the <u>most</u> <u>used</u> words in a language though. Many terms are included that are common to spoken English only, and these will have labels that restrict their usage. The writer should choose a

current, recognized abridged dictionary; some are so abridged, they are virtually useless for the writer.

A dictionary provides much more information for the report writer than definitions. It also may provide spelling(s), pronunciation, hyphenation, syllabic division, sometimes synonyms, antonyms, and homophones, and labels. It is a very useful tool and should be kept close at hand at all times while writing.

PRONUNCIATION:

The English language is extremely versatile in that there is a sufficient number of words in the active vocabulary to express almost any sentiment or opinion. During the Middle English period--from 1100 A.D. to 1500 A.D.--many words from other languages were integrated into the language. Forty per cent of the entries in English dictionaries, in fact, are derived from the Romance language family, which includes French, Spanish, and Italian. Because of these borrowings, a problem has been created; this problem is found in the pronunciation of some words not traced to the Anglo-Saxon dialects. In many cases, as words were integrated, they were given the natural pitch and stress of the English language, thus causing an inconsistency in phonetic pronunciation.

A word, the smallest unit of language, is formed from consonants which are articulated by the addition of vowels. Vowels are variably pronounced within words. For example, the first letter in the alphabet, "a" is pronounced differently in each of the following words: bat, gate, father, about, awkward, data. The other vowels are as changeable as the "a."

How can a reader be certain of how to pronounce new words? The dictionary provides a key to pronunciation through the use of symbols which represent sounds; these symbols are fixed--they never vary as do the sounds

of the letters of the alphabet. In this manner, a word may be articulated, no matter what the letter combinations or inconsistencies may be.

In addition to the pronunciation key, which is used to interpret the phonetic spelling of a word, the reader must also insert stress or accent. This simply means that one syllable will be pronounced louder than others in a word. The loudest syllable will be indicated with a primary stress mark (ˈ). If two syllables are accented, the next loudest will be marked with a secondary stress mark (ˌ). While one-syllable words are stressed, they do not have a stress mark. By combining phonetic spelling and stress, correct pronunciation for any word can be achieved.

Exercise I: From the "Pronunciation Key" of your dictionary, write the correct symbols for the following main entries. Be ready to pronounce them aloud in class.

1. emu _____
2. align _____
3. harassment _____
4. fiduciary _____
5. ptomaine _____
6. detente _____
7. indicative _____
8. comparable _____
9. lien _____
10. chaos _____

SYLLABIC DIVISION:

Most dictionaries indicate syllables with the use of centered dots. Syllabic indication appears within the phonetic respelling.

HYPHENATION:

Syllabic division lets a writer know where a word can possibly be divided at the end of a line. At least two letters must be left on the

original line and three brought down; a one-letter syllable should not appear first in a new line of writing.

Certain words in the English language are always hyphenated. If the hyphen should appear in a word, it will be indicated in the main entry and in the phonetic spelling. The writer should be careful not to confuse the hyphen with the centered dot.

Exercise II: Where can the following words be divided at the end of a line of writing?

1. parable _____
2. accountant _____
3. indivisible _____
4. occupational _____
5. devise _____

SPELLING:

Incorrectly spelled words are like a pox; they mark the writer as a careless communicator. On the job, if words are not spelled accurately in written communication, the supervisor may interpret this handicap as indicative of the employee's abilities. Additionally, subordinates quickly lose respect for a supervisor if they judge job qualifications by the person's writing.

The following thirty words are often misspelled by college students, as well as by those in the working community:

accommodate	occurrence	procedure	recommend
article	perseverance	proceed	repetition
attendance	category	realize	separate
believe	criticize	receive	similar
forty	definite	embarrass	technical
license	disappoint	envelope	truly
ninth	precede	excellent	
occasion	privilege	familiar	

Many dictionaries provide a section on spelling in the introductory material or student guide.

DEFINITION:

Effective communication depends greatly upon accurate expression; this skill requires competence in word usage--knowing exactly what a word means in a specific context and precisely how to use it in speaking and writing. The most valuable asset in effective self-expression is still the dictionary, because each entry in a model dictionary contains fundamental offerings to help the user.

Most collegiate dictionaries, which are abridged, will give a central meaning first. The definitions which follow are given in order of closeness in sense to the central meaning. Then, the other definitions are given in order of decreasing use or importance. The numbering for the definitions starts over every time the part of speech changes. The word "communication" appears twice below; the first citation is taken from the American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language, the New College Edition and the second is from Webster's New World Dictionary, Second Edition.

> com-mu-ni-ca-tion (ka myoo'na ka' shan) n. Abbr. com., comm. 1. The **act** of communicating; transmission. 2. The exchange of thoughts, messages, or the like, as by speech, signals, or writing. 3. Something communicated. 4. Plural. A means of communcating, especially: a. A system for sending and receiving messages, as by mail, telephone, or television. b. Military. A network of routes for sending messages and transporting troops and supplies. 5. Any connective passage or channel. 6. Plural. The art and technology of communicating.

> com-mu-ni-ca-tion (ka myoo'na ka'shan) n. 1. The act of transmitting. 2. a) a giving or exchanging of information, signals, or messages by talk, gestures, writing, etc. b) the information, message, etc. 3. close, sympathetic relationship 4. a means of communicating; specif., a) /pl./ a system for sending and receiving messages, as by telephone, telegraph, radio, etc. b) /pl./ a system as of routes for moving troops and material c) a passage or way for getting from one place to another 5. /often pl., with sing. v./ a) the art of expressing ideas, esp. in speech and writing b) the science of transmitting information, esp. in symbols.

SYNONYMS, ANTONYMS, AND HOMOPHONES:

Linguists have created names that show relationships between words. Three of the terms that show the relationships are synonyms, antonyms, and homophones. Homophones are sometimes called homonyms.

Synonyms are words that are spelled and pronounced differently, but whose meanings are essentially the same. When they are included in a dictionary, they will be labeled "Syn." Antonyms are spelled and pronounced differently, and they mean essentially the opposite. If a dictionary does not give the synonyms and antonyms for a word, a writer may choose to use a thesaurus to find this information. Another method is to use the one-word definitions themselves as synonyms.

Exercise III: Write one synonym and one antonym for each term below:

	Syn.	Ant.
1. release	_____	_____
2. tight	_____	_____
3. gloomy	_____	_____
4. reckless	_____	_____
5. clear	_____	_____

Many words in our language, because of slight spelling differences, are misused. "Principal" and "principle" are what modern linguists call homophones; they were called homonyms. These two words, however, must never be used interchangeably. "Principal," meaning main, or in reference to an individual as director, may be used in a sentence such as the following: The principal of our school, just like all other American citizens, makes principal and interest mortgage payments each month. "Principle," a basic truth, law, or assumption, is correctly used in the following sentence: Acting on the humanist's principles, the Good Samaritan helped the beaten man.

Other such homophones which are often confused by writers are listed below. A good report writer knows the definition of each.

allowed-aloud	passed-past	bear, bare
coarse-course	peace-piece	prophet, profit
disburse-disperse	some-sum	its, it's
forth-fourth	their, there, they're	your, you're
loan-lone	to, too, two	

"Fiscal" and "physical" are not pronounced the same; however, many people do pronounce them as if they were. "Fiscal" and "physical" are false homophones. Many pairs of words are improperly sounded alike. Speakers and writers should become aware of these troublesome terms and strive to differentiate between them.

The following word pairs are examples of false homophones:

accept-except	desert-dessert	reality-realty
adapt-adept	elicit, illicit	respectfully-respectively
affect-effect	personal-personnel	formerly-formally

Exercise IV: In the space provided, write the word that correctly completes the sense of the sentence.

1. We still owe $12,000, the (principle, principal) of the note. _____
2. (Their, There, They're) has been a strong demand for our transistor radios. _____
3. Collections, (to, too, two), are still poor in the Colorado Springs area. _____
4. Economy is our (sole, soul) reason for adopting this new policy. _____
5. (Dependence, Dependents) on others can sometimes be psychologically damaging to a person. _____

6. No company can operate at peak efficiency without the support of (its, it's) entire personnel. _____

7. The study will show (weather, whether) the project is feasible. _____

8. When I was a child, we were not (allowed, aloud) to speak unless we were spoken to. _____

9. Johnny said that we were (to, too, two) go on without him. _____

10. It was hours (passed, past) the deadline when the hostages were finally released. _____

LABELS:

Two types of labels are restrictive and identity. A restrictive label limits usage of a word. An identity label simply tells the reader something about the word.

Report writers should be especially aware of restrictive labels since report writing depends on use of "standard" words, those without restrictive labels. Restrictive labels are usage labels, field labels, foreign labels, etc. Words that have these types of labels should be defined or put in quotes when used in a general report.

Usage labels indicate the level of writing or speaking appropriate for a particular word. Examples of usage labels are "informal," "non-standard," "slang," "regional," "dialect," "obsolete," and "vulgar." Different dictionaries may use different terms to indicate the same basic formality levels. It is a good idea to look in the front of the dictionary to see what each term indicates in that specific dictionary.

Field labels restrict use of a word to a certain discipline or field of study. Before the definition, a specific field label such as "Music" or "Aero." will be given in italics. A report writer may use terms that

have field labels without defining them if they are common to the report reader. Otherwise, a short definition must be included.

As if the English language is not complicated enough, hundreds of foreign words and abbreviations for foreign terms are used regularly by readers and writers of English. These will have foreign labels which tell the language from which they are borrowed. Journalists and newscasters, as well as writers of fiction and non-fiction, rely heavily on these borrowings.

Example: How many times have you heard someone say, "Gesundheit!" after another has sneezed? "Gesundheit" is a German word which most Americans use daily. The following list provides only a sampling of the many words, abbreviations, and expressions which we have borrowed to enrich our language:

détente	fait accompli
laissez faire	e.g.
etc.	patio
id est	déjà vu

Exercise V: What restrictive label(s) is given for each of the following? Include the definition number for each label. (Example: n.4.) Remember, restrictive labels include usage labels, field labels, and foreign labels.

1. caveat emptor: _____
2. dove (past tense of dive): _____
3. ne'er: _____
4. laissez faire: _____
5. current: _____
6. snot: _____
7. fait accompli: _____
8. O.K.: _____
9. poke (a bag): _____
10. modus operandi: _____
11. arroyo: _____
12. measure: _____

Identity labels are sometimes coded by dark type or placement within an entry. Four common identity labels important for the report writer are idioms, abbreviations, proper nouns, and parts of speech. Identity labels provide information for the writer, but do not usually restrict usage.

IDIOMS:

Idioms are indicated by dark type. These are usually phrases that have different meanings from those of the individual words that compose them. The idioms are preceded by a dash. "Put your foot in your mouth" and "up a creek" are examples of idiomatic phrases. The idiom will be listed and defined under the main word of the phrase or occasionally included as a main entry.

Exercise VI: Under which entry is each of the following idioms found, and what does it mean?

	(Entry?)	(Meaning?)
1. "a green thumb"	_____	_____
2. "out of your head"	_____	_____
3. "button your lip"	_____	_____
4. "tighten your belt"	_____	_____
5. "pulling my leg"	_____	_____

Abbreviations and proper nouns are entered separately in strict alphabetical order. If an entry is an abbreviation, it is followed by a period. The definition will indicate whether the letter combination is really an abbreviation. If it is always a proper noun, it will be capitalized in the main entry. If it is sometimes a proper noun, a capital letter indication

will be included further into the definitions; then definitions for the word when it is a proper noun will be given.

Exercise VII: What do the following abbreviations (as written) stand for? Give all possibilities.

1. R.N. _____
2. C.O.D. _____
3. sec. _____
4. acc. _____
5. tr. _____

Exercise VIII: When are the following words capitalized within a sentence?

1. south _____
   _____
2. lady _____
   _____
3. god _____
   _____
4. catholic _____
   _____
5. communism _____
   _____

Parts of speech labels tell a writer how to use a word grammatically in a sentence. Nouns and pronouns can be subjects and objects; verbs tell what the subject does, has done to it, is, or owns; a transitive verb needs a direct object; an intransitive verb does not; adjectives modify nouns or pronouns; adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. Conjunctions, interjections, and prepositions serve specific purposes within sentences, also.

Exercise IX: List all possible parts of speech for each word. Write a sentence using one of those parts of speech.

1. effect _____

_____

2. joint _____

_____

3. envelop _____

_____

4. man _____

_____

5. grant _____

_____

UNIT II: SENTENCE STRUCTURE

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS:

Part of a writer's command of the language is dependent on grammar and usage. These become apparent in the sentence structure of a report. The way that sentences are constructed is called a writer's style. Sentence structure determines the clarity of the report and, therefore, how easy or difficult it will be for the reader to interpret the information. Because a report is primarily informative, declarative sentences are used most often. A declarative sentence will always begin with a capital letter and end with a period. Its purpose is to make a statement.

Even if the intent of the sentence is appropriate, the effectiveness of the sentence depends on other factors as well. Subject/verb agreement is important. So is maintaining parallelism, which is consistent construction, within a sentence. If pronouns are used, they should be very clear references to the nouns they replace. Knowing the names of the parts of speech is not absolutely necessary, but it helps when a writer is trying to identify an error.

Additionally, effective sentence structure is achieved by varying the syntax--the arrangement of words, clauses, and phrases. Varying sentence structure allows the report writer to keep the writing interesting; thus the report will be read more thoroughly. Important thoughts should be put in short, clear sentences. Less important ideas can be combined in complex structures. Always, the relationship of one sentence in a report to another should be made perfectly clear.

Of course, the ultimate outcome of the report depends upon the writer's ability to use words appropriately. The skills acquired in the word usage and sentence structure units provide a foundation for writing reports. Once these skills are mastered, the writer is ready to begin working on a full-scale report.

SENTENCE CONSTRUCTION:

A sentence is a group of words that has a subject, a verb, and expresses one complete thought.

Examples:

1. Joe hit the ball.
2. The ball was hit by Joe.
3. Louise walked.
4. Kirk is a fielder.
5. He is interesting to watch.
6. Hank saunters around the bases, but Mike runs as fast as he can.
7. The fans become suddenly still when Bonny takes position to bat.
8. When Bonny takes position to bat, the fans become suddenly still.
9. She hit a homer, and the bases were loaded since the last batter walked.
10. We won; we won!

SUBJECTS:

The subject of a sentence is the person, place, or item that the sentence is about.

Examples:

1. Joe	5. He	9. She, bases
2. ball	6. Hank, Mike	10. We, we
3. Louise	7. fans	
4. Kirk	8. fans	

NOTE: Subjects can be understood as well as stated. Commands (imperatives) use this structure.

Close the door. Pass the sugar.

Take a memo. Hand me the knife!

"You" is the understood subject in these examples.

Exercise X: Underline the simple subject of each sentence with one line.

1. A medical secretary needs to be friendly.

2. She must be able to remain cordial in tense situations, also.

3. Along with these two qualities, her reception procedures must be adequate.

4. Patients who contact the office want to talk to someone who is pleasant and businesslike.

5. They want to be assured that their records are kept accurate and up-to-date.

6. Patients like to be called by their names.

7. Most patients resent being asked over the telephone to explain their illnesses to the secretary.

8. If she must have an idea of the nature of the problem, she should be brief and tactful.

9. Most people are a little embarrassed to discuss their problems with anyone but the doctor.

10. Permanent records are very important to the doctor and to the patient.

11. The patient's best care may depend on the accuracy with which the secretary transcribes the doctor's diagnosis and treatment.

12. The permanent record may become a legal document for the doctor.

13. Good medical records should include written notes, radiographs, photographs, laboratory reports, and case histories.

14. A case history contains all previous medical history of which the physician should be aware.

15. A medical secretary must use meticulous care in updating the records by transcribing the patient's complaints, treatment, and prognosis accurately.

VERBS:

Verbs are the workhorses of the language. They indicate both number and time. Tense, which means time, can show that an event is present, past, future, present perfect, past perfect, or future perfect. Verbs show number by being either singular or plural. Although singular verbs often end in s, plural verbs do not. Whether they are singular or plural, verbs must always agree with their subjects in number. That is, a singular subject takes a singular verb, and a plural subject takes a plural verb.

Examples:

1. Present tense: I walk a mile each day.

2. Past tense: I walked a mile each day.

3. Future tense: I will walk a mile each day.

4. Present perfect tense: I have walked a mile each day.

5. Past perfect tense: I had walked a mile each day before I turned my ankle yesterday.

6. Future perfect tense: I will have walked seven miles by the end of the week.

The verb shows that the subject (1) does something, (2) is something or (3) has something done to it.

Examples:

(1) The verb shows that the subject does something:

1. Joe hit the ball.

2. Louise walked.

3. Hank saunters around the bases, but Mike runs as fast as he can.

4. She hit a homer, and the bases were loaded since the last batter walked.

5. We won; we won!

(2) The verb shows that the subject is something; these verbs are called linking verbs:

1. Kirk is a fielder.

2. He is interesting to watch.

3. The fans become suddenly still when Bonny takes position to bat. (Am, is, are, was, were, might be, and has been are forms of "to be"; other linking verbs are act, appear, become, feel, look, seem, smell, sound, and taste.)

(3) The verb shows that the subject has something done to it:

1. The ball was hit by Joe.

2. She hit a homer, and the bases were loaded since the last batter walked.

In forming the future tense, present perfect tense, past perfect tense, and future perfect tense, a main verb (walk) needs a helping or auxiliary verb. The future tense is formed by adding shall or will to the main verb; the present perfect and past perfect tenses are formed by adding forms of have to the main verb whereas the future perfect tense is formed by adding shall or will to the main verb along with the auxiliary have.

Exercise XI. Underline the simple subject of the main clause with one line and the simple verb with two lines. (Underline helping verbs where necessary.)

1. Radar sends a signal and receives it back.
2. Radar is hooked to a car's electrical system.
3. Radar then sends a signal to the rear of the car.
4. Signals bounce off the metal car and are received back into the radar for a speed readout.
5. V.A.S.C.A.R. is a visual, average speed computer and recorder.
6. No depth perception is used in the V.A.S.C.A.R.
7. Shadows, which are cast on the moving car, are used to measure speed in the V.A.S.C.A.R.
8. An operator using the V.A.S.C.A.R. must have permanent marks on the road to help him compute speed.
9. These permanent marks cast a shadow on the passing car which is used by the operator to compute speed.
10. Aircraft are sometimes used in conjunction with patrol cars for monitoring highway speed.
11. Most patrolmen, however, rely on the speedometer in the patrol car to monitor speed.
12. He maintains a constant speed and observes the car which he is following.
13. If the distance between the two cars remains the same, the patrolman knows the speed of the car he is following.
14. Patrol cars must have their speedometers calibrated.
15. This is always done when the car is new.
16. If a speedometer is ever found to be incorrect, it is immediately recalibrated.

17. Many people are not aware of these four speed-checking techniques which are used by patrolmen.

18. Most people are aware of the radar scope and of the speedometer.

19. Few citizens believe that aircraft are actually ever used.

20. Well-informed citizens should know about the V.A.S.C.A.R. and other techniques in monitoring highway speed.

Exercise XII: Choose the form of verb for correct subject/verb agreement in the following sentences.

1. Neither the teacher nor the student (knows, know) the answer to the questions.

2. The speakers at the meeting (was, were) stimulating.

3. Peas and carrots (is, are) his favorite vegetable dish.

4. Peas and carrots (is, are) his favorite vegetables.

5. There (is, are) in his story many characters who (was, were) motivated by personal gain.

6. Which of the twelve assignments (is, are) easiest.

7. The pilot as well as the stewardess and six passengers (was, were) injured.

8. Ten dollars (was, were) all a seat cost for the concert.

9. She is one of the girls who (was, were) given tickets.

10. I will go too if you and he (gets, get) the invitations.

CLAUSES AND PHRASES:

In dealing with sentences certain groups of words are called independent clauses, other groups of words are called dependent clauses, and still others are called phrases. An independent clause has the exact same definition as that for a sentence. In fact, a simple sentence is an independent clause--it has a subject, a verb, and expresses one complete idea. A dependent clause, on the other hand, has a subject and a verb, BUT it does not make sense by itself. Dependent clauses begin with subordinating conjunctions or relative pronouns. Subordinating conjunctions which tell "when"

are after, as, before, once, since, until, when, and while; subordinating conjunctions which tell "why" are because and since; subordinating conjunctions which tell "where" are where, and wherever; other subordinating conjunctions are although, if, and unless. Relative pronouns which begin dependent clauses are who, which, that, what, and whose. A phrase is a group of words which has no subject/verb relationship and would not, therefore, make sense by itself.

Examples:

1. Birds fly. (I.C.)
2. They usually fly south for the winter. (I.C.)
3. When birds fly south.... (D.C.)
4. Since the baby robin was just hatched.... (D.C.)
5. ...while the babies are in the nest. (D.C.)
6. Around the corner, over the hill, on the plains, in the field, failure to record date, up the road, and having too much money are examples of phrases.
7. ...whose identity is unknown, which can stand alone, and who applies for the job are examples of relative pronoun clauses.

Exercise XIII: Underline each independent clause once and each dependent clause twice. Leave a break in the line(s) if two like clauses appear next to each other. (These sentences have purposely had some punctuation left out.)

1. While affidavits, wills, and powers of attorney are common legal instruments most of us do not fully understand their purposes.
2. An affidavit which is the most widely used instrument is a written statement of facts sworn to by the person making the statement.
3. This statement is made in the presence of an officer who is authorized to administer the oath.
4. Since the purpose of an affidavit is to help prove a fact it is often used in court.
5. An affidavit which proves identity, age, marital status, and possession of property is used extensively in court.
6. An affidavit which is a complete instrument within itself has many characteristics which distinguish it from other instruments.

7. Most other legal instruments which are part of some other instrument often do not have such distinguishing characteristics.

8. An affidavit is sworn to while other legal instruments need not be sworn to in order to be effective.

9. Many instruments require only one signature; however, the affidavit is signed by the person who is taking the oath as well as the person who is administering the oath.

10. The power of attorney is widely used also.

11. It is a written instrument which gives authority to an agent who has been appointed to act on the behalf of the person giving the authority.

12. The two parties named in a power of attorney are, of course, the principal who gives the authority and the agent who receives the authority.

13. A general power of attorney which allows the agent to do almost any act for the principal and a limited power of attorney which allows the agent to perform certain specified acts are the two basic forms of this legal instrument.

14. Since powers of attorney are commonly used to borrow money, collect debts, manage, lease, and prosecute a law suit, they need to be understood by the secretaries using them.

15. Secretaries who are given a power of attorney use it to sign checks when their employers are not present.

16. The will which is a commonly used legal instrument takes effect after the death of the principal.

17. Wills generally fall into three categories.

18. These categories are nuncupative which is an oral will, holographic which is a written instrument, and reciprocal which is a will made by two persons.

19. A will has two parties who are known as testator, male, or testatrix, female, and beneficiary.

20. A beneficiary is the person who benefits from the will.

TYPES OF SENTENCES:

Knowing the four kinds of sentences used in English will help a writer to determine the correct punctuation. The Simple Sentence, which is one independent clause, usually requires no punctuation except a period at the end. The Compound Sentence, which is composed of two or more coordinate independent clauses, requires a semi-colon between the clauses or a comma

along with a coordinating conjunction. Six coordinating conjunctions used to join these equal clauses are and, but, for, or, so, yet. The Complex Sentence, which contains one independent clause and at least one dependent clause, usually needs no further punctuation when the dependent clause comes at the end of the sentence. (See discussion on restrictive and non-restrictive dependent clauses.) A Compound-Complex Sentence combines the elements of both the compound and complex structures; however, only two independent clauses are required. If the dependent clause is used to begin the sentence, then it MUST be set off with a comma. This tells the reader that the main idea will come at the end of the sentence rather than at the beginning.

SENTENCE FORMULAS:

1. IC = SS (independent clause equals simple sentence)

2. IC + IC = CpS (independent clause plus independent clause equals compound sentence)
   Note: CpS can have more than two independent clauses.

3. IC + DC = CxS (independent clause plus dependent clause equals complex sentence)
   Note: CxS can have more than one dependent clause.

4. CpS (IC + IC) + CxS (IC+DC) = CpCxS
   (independent clause plus independent clause plus dependent clause equals compound-complex sentence.)
   Note: CpCxS can have two or more independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses.

Discriminating writers are very careful to include the semicolon or a comma with a coordinating conjunction between the independent clauses in a compound sentence. The omission of required punctuation causes a run-on sentence. Placing a comma, which by itself is not strong enough, between two independent clauses causes a comma splice. Careful writers, also, would

never leave a dependent clause alone as a sentence. This error is called a fragment. A fragment does not express a complete thought. The run-on, comma splice, and fragment are the most often occurring errors in writing, and they must be avoided. Very often writers have difficulty in knowing whether to place a comma before "and." The guide most discerning writers follow is called the "elements in a series rule." It states that a comma is required before the conjunction connecting the last two elements in a sequence of three or more.

Examples:

1. We had ice cream, cake, and strawberries for dessert.
2. Our country club has a swimming pool, a lake with fishing and boating facilities, and a golf course. (Notice what this sentence says if the comma before the and is left out.)

Exercise XIV: Punctuate the following; revise if necessary.

1. Knowing when to use commas semicolons parentheses and dashes can be critical to a writer
2. Midterm has arrived only five weeks remain until the course is completed
3. Nevertheless we intend to become masters of punctuation
4. The student on my left is conscientious
5. The student sitting next to me is finishing the math assignment
6. He is wearing a bright colorful shirt
7. Remember this, punctuation is the tool of the writer
8. Your instructor in computers Ms. Smith is always prompt for class
9. Whenever it is possible read the directive file all carbon copies
10. Noninterference is one meaning of laissez faire
11. Some of our junior executives do routine work others perform more complex duties
12. We are happy to have you join our company Ms. Jones
13. To avoid appearing incompetent we must become punctuation proficient

14. Because we want to become proficient at punctuation we study the rules

15. If Robert comes to class late he will miss the important announcements

16. Shall we open our new business in Colorado Springs Denver or Pueblo

17. You should ask John Cindy or Mark for the notes from the last class

18. Fortunately I was able to get the assignment

19. Even people who study hard sometimes make a mistake

20. Instructors should never be late for class

21. My records show that the following students have not handed in the assignment; Mr. Purdy Miss Pleasant and Ms. Applepolisher

22. I stayed awake until two o'clock in the morning; hoping I'd get the work done

23. Although I seldom have problems with grammer; the punctuation seems to elude me

24. Except for physics my courses are not difficult

25. Its a wise dog that scratches it's own fleas

26. Being in a dilapidated condition: the house was purchased for a reasonable price

27. Wondering what to do next; I heard the clock strike midnight

28. Students often worry. About examinations.

29. Students should review periodically beforehand and follow directions on tests

30. Often students come to class without having read the assignment this leads to unnecessary confusion

RESTRICTIVE AND NON-RESTRICTIVE CLAUSES:

A major problem concerning the comma involves restrictive and non-restrictive clauses. Some dependent clauses are said to be restrictive or non-restrictive. If they are restrictive, then they restrict the meaning of the main clause. Since they are essential to the meaning of the main clause, no commas are used to set them off from the main clause. On the other hand, if the dependent clause gives additional information <u>but</u> NON-essential information, commas should be used to set if off from the main

clause. The non-restrictive clause might be thought of as interrupting the main idea. The commas are used to tell the reader that additional information is being provided, but it is not essential to his understanding of the main idea.

Examples:

1. My dad, who is seventy, runs a mile each day. (non-restrictive)

2. The woman who is sitting on my left is my aunt. (restrictive)

Exercise XV: Identify each kind of sentence by writing S for simple, CP for compound, CX for complex, and CPCX for compound-complex before each number. Also insert commas to identify all non-restrictive clauses.

_____ 1. Affidavits, wills, and powers of attorney are legal instruments.

_____ 2. An affidavit which is the most widely used instrument is a written statement of facts sworn to by the person making the statement.

_____ 3. This statement is made in the presence of an officer who is authorized to administer the oath.

_____ 4. The purpose of an affidavit is to help prove a fact.

_____ 5. An affidavit which proves identity, age, marital status, and possession of property is used extensively in court.

_____ 6. An affidavit which is a complete instrument within itself has many characteristics which distinguish it from other instruments.

_____ 7. Most other legal instruments are part of some other instrument.

_____ 8. An affidavit is sworn to while other legal instruments need not be sworn to in order to be effective.

_____ 9. Many instruments require only one signature; however, the affidavit is signed by the person who is taking the oath as well as the person who is administering the oath.

_____ 10. The power of attorney is widely used also.

_____ 11. It is a written instrument which gives authority to an agent who has been appointed to act on behalf of the person giving the authority.

_____ 12. The two parties named in a power of attorney are, of course, the principal who gives the authority and the agent who receives the authority.

_____ 13. A general power of attorney which allows the agent to do almost any act for the principal and a limited power of attorney which allows the agent to perform certain specified acts are the two basic forms of this legal instrument.

_____ 14. Powers of attorney are commonly used to borrow money, collect debts, manage, lease, and prosecute a law suit.

_____ 15. Secretaries who are given a power of attorney use it to sign checks when their employers are not present.

_____ 16. The will which is a commonly used legal instrument takes effect after the death of the principal.

_____ 17. Wills generally fall into three categories.

_____ 18. These categories are nuncupative which is an oral will, holographic which is a written instrument, and reciprocal which is a will made by two persons.

_____ 19. A will has two parties who are known as a testator, male or testatrix, female, and beneficiary.

_____ 20. A beneficiary is the person who benefits from the will.

UNIT III: ORGANIZATION AND PARAGRAPH DEVELOPMENT

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS:

Reports are written in response to a particular need of a particular individual or group. The information in a report needs to be transmitted to this individual or group in an easily understandable form. In order to make the information more understandable, the report writer organizes the information according to a specific purpose and arrangement.

The general purpose of any report is to inform. Facts, statistics, interview responses, computer readouts, laboratory results, experimental processes, or other types of information are organized and arranged in a report so that the meaning can be more easily understood. It is usually written in third person. For example, "I," "me," "we," "us," or "you" are not appropriate. It uses as few words as possible to adequately convey the intended meaning.

A report follows an introduction, thesis statement--part of the introduction, body, and conclusion arrangement, just as many other types of writing do, but here the similarity ends. The introduction and conclusion do not rely on devices such as jokes and quotations for their effect. In report writing, the introduction merely introduces the material; the body develops and supports each point made in the thesis, and the conclusion summarizes the thesis and main points in different words from those used in the introductory paragraph.

The process of report writing can be simplified. The easiest method is to approach it as a problem to be solved step by step. The five necessary steps in report writing are limitation, thesis statement construction, outlining, rough draft writing, and final copy revision.

The First Step In Writing A Report Is Limitation of A Topic.

LIMITATION:

Usually the report topic is determined by the writer or by the person or people requesting the information. If this is not the case, the writer needs to have adequate knowledge concerning the chosen topic. After the topic has been determined, it is very important that this subject be limited so that it can be clearly explained in the time or space allotted. A limitation chart may help to do this.

Example:

Main Topic: *Antiques*

Possible aspects:

1. *Glassware*	2. *Furniture*	3. *Tools*
Specific areas of each aspect:		
a. *Depression*	a. *How to Select*	a. _____ etc.
b. *Colonial*	b. *Refinishing*	
c. *Early European*	c. *Styles*	

Whatever the writer decides to tell about the subject becomes the completing part of the thesis statement. These are the controlling ideas. The report will vary in length according to the breadth of the topic. Incidentally, the report for this course will be informative and will not be researched since the objective here is to learn organizational techniques rather than research methods. Of course, if the report writer refers to a text, in the case where sufficient information concerning the major area of study is lacking, the source must be documented. Using another person's material without giving recognition is plagiarism, which is a very serious offense.

Exercise XVI: Make up a limitation chart using a general topic about which you are informed.

Main topic: _____

Possible aspects:

1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____

Specific areas of aspect:

a. _____ a. _____

b. _____ b. _____

c. _____ c. _____

The Second Step In Writing A Report Is Formulating An Effective Thesis Statement.

THESIS STATEMENTS:

The key to a well-organized report is an effectively written thesis statement. A thesis statement is the writer's promise to the reader. The body of the report fulfills this promise. Each thesis statement should be a full sentence. This means that it will have a subject, predicate, and complete thought. In addition, it must be declarative, a statement. This sentence previews the content and gives direction to the method of assembly of information.

Three guidelines can be used to write an effective thesis statement: (1) The topic should be restricted. (2) The thesis should be capable of being completed. (3) The statement should use primarily concrete, not abstract, terms.

The first requirement, restriction, will be determined by the level of limitation. The more limited the topic from which the thesis statement is taken, the shorter the report. A good writer will learn to adjust the length of a report by expanding or limiting the thesis, not the body of the paper.

To achieve completeness, the writer must state a specific number of concepts within the thesis statement. After all of these concepts have been covered, the report is complete. When the thesis is stated generally, as it is in some other types of writing, the reader may not be sure when all of the material has been covered. When it is stated specifically, as in a report, the concluding thought is obvious.

Example: Several steps must be followed to write an effective report. (general thesis statement)

Five necessary steps in report writing are limitation, thesis statement construction, outlining, rough draft writing, and final copy revision. (specific thesis statement)

Finally, a report thesis statement should be stated in concrete terms. If the reader knows precisely what will be covered, he can structure the message more easily and remember more of it. Precision occurs through the use of concrete terms, which are words that have referents that can be experienced sensually. If it can be smelled, seen, touched, heard, or felt, it is a concrete term and can be used effectively in thesis statement construction.

A writer can follow this simple checklist and easily complete the first and most important part of writing the report. The thesis statement should be first checked for sentence sense. Is it a complete sentence, and is that sentence declarative? Next, the thesis must be checked for restriction, completeness, and precision. If it meets all of these requirements, it is a good report thesis statement, and the writer is ready to proceed to step three, which is outlining the report.

Exercise XVII: Which of the statements below are effective report thesis statements:

Be prepared to explain your answers.

1. _____ Four principal data-gathering techniques used by TV and radio today are telephone interviews, in-person interviews, viewer-listener diaries, and receiver-metering.

2. _____ Making your own baby food is very difficult.

3. _____ Two common methods of deer hunting in Colorado are stalking and driving.

4. _____ Learning to water ski is challenging and exciting.

5. _____ Advantages and disadvantages of public transportation.

6. _____ A legal secretary should possess knowledge of affidavits, powers of attorney, and wills.

7. _____ Geriatric care in the twenty-first century.

8. _____ Determining goals, forecasting future events, projecting applicable budgets, and making policies as related business planning phases.

9. _____ Differences and similarities of LPN, two-year RN, and four-year BSN degrees.

10. _____ Ames, Iowa is an interesting city.

11. _____ Can any average American become a millionnaire?

12. _____ An end of the runway pre-flight includes checking the flight controls, instruments, and performance of the engine during run-up.

13. _____ To plant a garden, spade the ground, rake it level, plant the seeds, and water thoroughly.

14. _____ An accountant may choose public accounting, private accounting or government accounting as a career area.

15. _____ Is diode and transistor circuit analysis important in electronics?

The Third Step In Writing A Report Is Outlining.

PRELIMINARY OUTLINES:

A preliminary outline consists of the main points of the report. These main points are assigned Roman numerals in the final or expanded outline. Since the main purpose of a report is to arrange information for better understanding, some methods of development work better than others. The three most common orders used to organize information are chronological

(temporal), spatial (includes geographical), and categorical (includes topical).

When a writer uses chronological order, it is for the purpose of showing a relationship based on time. A report showing the changes in the Broadmoor Hotel could be effectively written by using decades as major parts of the outline. When time is important in a process analysis, chronological order is used with the step 1, step 2, step 3 method. Days, hours, minutes, seconds, years, decades, and even eras are units of time and thus suitable for use in a report which is developed chronologically.

Spatial order is used when the concepts in a report need to be organized according to where they are located. Left/right, up/down, over/under, etc. are used to indicate a spatial relationship. This order is often used when explaining a machine, a building, or an organism. A variation of spatial order is geographical order. It is similar to spatial order in that it, too, helps to locate things. The difference is that geographical order uses map references or actual locations in explaining a concept. Terms used in geographically arranged reports are north, south, east, west, left, right, and distance indicators such as miles or blocks.

Categorical order, also called topical organization, is the name used when a report simply divides the thesis statement into categories or topics. Sometimes this division is based on causes; sometimes it provides a series of definitions; sometimes large to small or expensive to inexpensive determines the order of arrangement. Whichever logic the writer chooses, the Roman numerals of the outline still will exactly equal the controlling ideas stated in the thesis statement.

The writer should not mix these methods or orders at any one level of the report outline; however, subpoints may be arranged according to one order while main points use another to control the arrangement of information.

Each of the methods of development or orders discussed is really just a pattern of thinking. Using one of these to govern the arrangement of concepts in a report makes it easier for the reader to remember the information because these patterns of thinking are used every day. One can see that writing an effective thesis statement will help greatly in constructing a preliminary outline.

Example:

1) Mayor Smith resigned because of public pressure, City Council pressure, and bad press.

   I. Public pressure
   II. City Council pressure
   III. Bad press

2) Choosing between a 30.06 and a .308 as a big game weapon should be based on hunting conditions, expertise of the hunter, and budget.

   I. Hunting conditions
   II. Expertise of the hunter
   III. Budget

3) An atom is composed of neutrons, protons, and electrons.

   I. Neutrons
   II. Protons
   III. Electrons

4) Tract houses in the Colorado Springs area can be classified as rancher, bi-level, tri-level, split-level, or two story.

   I. Rancher
   II. Bi-level
   III. Tri-level
   IV. Split-level
   V. Two story

5) Refinishing old furniture can be accomplished by first preparing the wood, then applying a staining agent, and finally sealing the wood with oil or varnish.

   I. Preparing the wood
   II. Applying the staining agent
   III. Sealing the wood

It is helpful to view the outline as an organizational tool. Just as a builder must have blueprints to construct a house, the writer must have

an "idea plan" to construct an effective report. The thesis statement provides a solid foundation for the report. It sets limitations by restricting the ideas which may be included just as a foundation for a house limits the extent of the structure. If the analogy is carried further, the rooms of the house can be compared to the major ideas that appear in the preliminary outline. A house may have many rooms, just as a thesis statement may have many major divisions, or the house may have only a few rooms, as the thesis statement may be divided into as few as two divisions. The major consideration in both cases is equality of importance. One major sub-division in a report should be as necessary and as important as every other major subdivision in that report; one room in a house should be as important as any other. The emphasis in a blueprint is on general planning; the fine finishing is saved for later. The same principal applies in outlining: the emphasis is on organization and structure of the whole, and the effective wording is added when the report is actually written. The outline helps the writer to critically view the overall report just as the blueprint helps a builder to see how a house will go together.

EXPANDING THE OUTLINE:

Once the preliminary outline has been completed, it is relatively easy to fill it in with the subheads and proofs. The same logic is used to expand the first outline by inserting necessary subheads and supporting materials under the appropriate Roman numerals. The report writer should always remember that it is permissible to change developmental orders whenever a new level in the outline is reached.

The following "outline of an outline" explains further how to develop the outline from the preliminary state to the final completed outline. It is illustrated in sentence form. Although phrase and word outlines are

preferred by some writers, they are not as useful to the report writer as the sentence outline.

CHECKLIST: OUTLINING

Thesis: An outline partitions and organizes information by putting it into categories that are coordinate, mutually exclusive, non-overlapping, and complete.

Body:

I. Categories are coordinate.

A. Information assigned a particular symbol level is equal to other information with the same symbol.

1. Roman numerals are equal in importance to other Roman numerals.
2. Capital letters within a section are equal to other capital letters in that section.
3. Arabic numerals within a section are equal to other Arabic numerals in that section.
4. Small letters within a section are equal to other small letters in that section.

B. Information assigned a particular symbol level is phrased like other entries at that level.

1. If I-A is arranged with subject first and verb second, then I-B, I-C, etc., should also follow the subject first and verb second arrangement.
2. If II-B begins with a gerund, (a verb with "ing" which is used as a noun, such as <u>swimming</u>, <u>golfing</u>, and <u>skiing</u>, II-B-2 and II-B-3, etc., must begin with gerunds also.

II. Categories are mutually exclusive.

A. Each section of the outline should present an independent idea.

1. The idea should not rely on another <u>section</u> of the outline for meaning.
2. The information should be useful.

B. The outline should be capable of being developed part by part.

1. The Roman numerals should be able to be changed into thesis statements.
2. The capital letters should be able to be changed into Roman numerals.
3. Supporting materials should be able to take on subordinate symbols.

4. Meaning should not be changed for the section developed.

III. Categories are non-overlapping.

A. Each section of the outline develops its own major point.

1. Other parts of the outline are not drawn in.
2. Information is divided into two subpoints when needed, never just one.

B. Each bit of information necessary to prove or develop the thesis appears only once.

1. The same wording may appear over and over.
2. The idea represented will change because of the major point above.
3. Thus, the same information is not really duplicated.

IV. Categories are complete.

A. Enough categories should be included to adequately explain the immediately superior idea.

1. Roman numerals equal the thesis statement.
2. Capital letters equal Roman numerals.
3. Arabic numerals equal capital letters.
4. Small letters equal Arabic numerals.

B. Extra categories should be eliminated from the outline.

1. These may have to be discarded.
2. They may become introductory material.

Exercise XVIII: Using the sentences from pages 40-41, complete the outline below. Then write a concluding paragraph.

Microprocessors In Daily Living

The microprocessor has become very important in recent times. These small computer "chips," no bigger than a person's thumb, are used in many modern conveniences. Home appliances, automobiles, and banks are three prime examples of their widespread use.

I.

A.

1. Microprocessors can be programmed.
2. They can be programmed to turn on and off.
3. They can monitor the exact cooking temperature.

B.

1. New styles of stitches can be found.
2. The operator can select another stitch at the push of a button.
3. New stitches can be "invented" by programming the microprocessor's memory.

C.

1. They are used to insure good color quality.
2.
3. Newer units have built-in troubleshooting stages which will alert the owner of a problem when one is detected.

II.

A. Most new, full-sized American cars use them to control their ignition systems.
   1. The computer insures that a good, high voltage spark is generated and delivered to the spark plugs.
   2. If the ignition system malfunctions, the computer warns the driver.

B.
   1.
   2.

III.

A. They are used in the central bank in many areas.
   1. Microprocessors are used in check verification equipment.
   2. Security systems in small banks are built around these small computers.

B. Bank teller machines are designed around them.
   1. The machines use them to read and verify the user's pass card and secret code.
   2. Specially programmed microprocessors are used to communicate with a master computer over telephone lines.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

1. They can also be programmed to warn the driver when the pressure is low.
2. The modern kitchen stove and radar range use them.
3. Many modern household appliances use microprocessors.
4. The fuel system also uses microprocessors.
5. They will be used in new household computers.

6. Bank calculating equipment uses them for speed and accuracy.

7. They insure good fuel pressure.

8. Automobile manufacturers are beginning to use microprocessor computers in new cars.

9. Banks rely heavily on microprocessors.

10. New remote control units are designed around them.

11. Microprocessors will be widely used in the future.

12. Television sets now use them in several stages.

13. Sewing machines also utilize microprocessors.

14. Automobiles will be programmed to transport their passengers to their destinations.

15. Money may even disappear as microprocessors replace bank tellers.

The Fourth Step In Writing A Report Is

Writing The Rough Draft

ROUGH DRAFT: Paragraph Development:

The rough draft is the first time the report writer sees his work in manuscript form. This is an exciting stage, because it seems that the end is finally in sight. Sometimes, a writer begins to hurry at this stage, and all the hard work exerted in the first three steps is wiped out because of carelessness, inadequate transitions, etc. in the final copy. In order for the rough draft to be written effectively, it should be written in three separate segments--body, conclusion, and introduction.

While writing the body of the report, the writer must be diligent in showing the relationship between the parts. This is done through careful construction of paragraphs. An effectively written outline, of course, will make the task considerably easier because the subheads, along with the supporting details, can be easily transposed into paragraphs.

The outline is divided into two or more Roman numeral segments, each of which is further divided into capital letters. If the report needs

headings, the Roman numerals can be condensed and used as the headings, or they can be used as transitional devices. In either case, each capital letter, along with its supporting details, becomes a paragraph under the appropriate heading.

A paragraph is made up of a topic sentence--which is similar to a thesis statement, supporting sentences, and a concluding sentence. In addition, it may have an internal summary or transition sentence. The information assigned a capital letter in the outline usually becomes the topic sentence. It is placed at or near the beginning of the paragraph in report writing. The information which has been assigned Arabic numerals in the outline becomes the support or "meat" of the paragraph. These support sentences may define, explain, give illustrations, show comparisons, enumerate steps, give causes, predict effects, or clarify through any developmental method the writer chooses. Transitional devices are words, phrases, or sentences which show the relationship of the material being explained to the other material in adjacent paragraphs or to the thesis statement. To show cause, words such as "because," "the reason for," or "an effect of..." are used. Process analysis uses "first," "next," "the second, fourth, step is...," and "finally." Body paragraphs must be connected; therefore, a good rule to follow is to try to include at least one transitional device for each paragraph. Without adequate transitions, the reader may not see the relationship between the parts of the report and get a distorted view of the relative importance of the material.

If the outline is developed correctly, each paragraph of the manuscript will explain only one idea. This idea is the one stated in the topic sentence and explained in the support. If a new idea is introduced, a new paragraph should be begun. The indention of the paragraph is a signal to the reader that the writer is about to begin a new idea.

After each capital letter segment of the outline is developed into a paragraph and these paragraphs are put in order, the writer is ready to create an introduction and a conclusion. Each has specific requirements. It is easier to construct the introduction and conclusion after the body of the report is written or at least outlined in sentences, so the writer knows exactly what he is introducing and concluding.

The introductory paragraph must meet two requirements: it must gain the reader's attention, and it must state the thesis. It may also introduce the topic and give necessary background information or definitions if they are needed. The introductory statement of a report is not wordy, although the writer may choose to use a low-key device such as a quotation to interest the reader. The background is included if events in the past lead up to the report itself. An example of this would be if the report is one of a series: "The report is the second in our series on abortion. The first report was published by ABC Corporation in December of 1978." Definition of terms is included if the report uses technical language or concepts with which the reader is not familiar: "Most outboard engines are mounted to the transom. The transom is the rear crosspiece on a boat." The thesis statement appears at the end of the introductory material and becomes the transition to the main body of the report.

The concluding paragraph, also, meets two requirements: It restates the thesis which should summarize the main points of the report, and it concludes the report through use of a final statement. The thesis may be stated in its original form, or it may be paraphrased. The summary always includes the Roman numeral information and sometimes even goes over the material given in the capital letters of the outline. The final statement lets the reader know that the report is finished, either by restating some

of the introductory material or by giving a recommendation. However, the conclusion must never bring in new material that was not brought out in the body of the report.

When the three segments of the rough draft are completed and assembled, the writer is ready for the final stage of writing. This stage is called final copy revision. It is the step where the "polishing" is done.

CHECKLIST: PARAGRAPH STRUCTURE

Quality Paragraphs Include

Topic Sentence (Capital Letters: Sub-topics in outline development)

+

Supporting Details (Arabic numerals: Proofs in outline development)

+

Clincher and/or Transitional Statement =

Paragraph

Unity: a paragraph develops one main idea.

Coherence: a paragraph has logical progression of ideas.

Emphasis: a paragraph focuses on one of the supporting details (proofs) by position (where in the paragraph the particular proof is placed) or proportion (how much space is alloted to the particular proof to expand its explanation.)

Completeness: a paragraph is complete when it contains sufficient information to develop its topic sentence and when it gives sufficient information to its intended audience--the reader.

Abstract Writing is writing which relies on general statements; it is often connotative because it uses ideas as referents rather than concrete objects or things. Therefore, it is not recommended for report writing.

Specific Writing is writing which is a methodical, factual development of a topic, usually not very interesting to read.

Concrete Writing is specific writing, but it is interesting, clear, and effective. It helps the reader to visualize, and it keeps his interest through use of examples, illustrations, transitions, etc.

CHECKLIST: TRANSITIONS

Two steps should be used in consulting this list. First, the type of signal should be determined. Next, the word which is most appropriate to the meaning should be selected.

TYPE OF SIGNAL	WORDS TO USE
To signal an addition:	in addition, furthermore, moreover, also, equally important,
To signal an example:	for example, for instance, thus, in other words, as an illustration, in particular,
To signal a suggestion:	for this purpose, to this end, with this object,
To signal emphasis:	indeed, truly, again, to repeat, in fact,
To signal granting a point:	while it may be true, in spite of this,
To signal a summary:	in summary, in conclusion, therefore, finally, consequently, thus, in short, accordingly, in brief, as a result, on the whole,
To signal the development of a sequence:	Value sequence: first, second, secondly, third, thirdly, next, last, finally, Time sequence: then, afterward, next, subsequently, previously, first, second, at last, meanwhile, immediately, soon, at length, yesterday, today, tomorrow, eventually, Space sequence: above, across, under, beyond, below, nearby, nearer, opposite to, adjacent to, to the left/right, in the foreground, in the background,
To signal a relationship:	Similarity: similarly, likewise, in like manner Contrast: in contrast to, however, but, still, nevertheless, yet, conversely, notwithstanding, on the other hand, on the contrary, at the same time, while this may be true, Cause and Effect: consequently, because, since, therefore, accordingly, thus, hence, due to, as a result

The Fifth And Final Step In Report Writing Is

Final Copy Revision

REVISION:

Correcting the little things, such as mechanical errors, grammatical inconsistencies, and usage problems in a report is the final evidence of professionalism. Even if a report is logically sound and well written, if spelling errors and subject-verb agreement errors are made, they are a bad reflection on the writer. Below is a revision checklist for report writers. If each of these items is checked and corrected before a report is submitted, the report will be professionally done.

CHECKLIST: REPORT REVISION

1. Paragraph check:

   Does each develop a single idea?
   Is that idea stated in a topic sentence?
   Is there adequate support to develop that idea?
   Is a concluding statement included in each paragraph?
   Is an internal summary or transitional device included where needed?

2. Sentence check:

   Does each sentence have a subject, predicate, and complete thought?
   Are fragment, run-on, and comma-splice errors eliminated?
   Are all the verbs in each paragraph consistent in time?
   Do the subjects and verbs in each sentence agree in number?
   Do pronouns agree with their antecedents in number?
   Are sentences written in third person?

3. Word usage check:

   Are the words used appropriate to the vocabulary level of the reader?
   Is the report written in mostly concrete terms rather than abstract?
   Is each and every word in the report spelled correctly?
   Are hyphenation rules followed throughout?

4. Mechanics check:

Are commas used for items in a series and for compound sentences?
Does each sentence begin with a capital letter and end with an appropriate punctuation mark?
Are proper nouns capitalized?
Are footnotes included for quoted or paraphrased material borrowed from another author?
Is the title of the report in all capital letters?
Is a title page or letter of transmittal included?
Are margins adequate?
Are headings easily seen?
Are numbers below ten written out?
Are contractions eliminated?

Exercise XIX: In the following excerpt, proofreading errors were missed. Circle or underline each error, and label it accordingly: F-fragment, CS-Comma-splice, RO-Run-on, Sp-spelling, P-punctuation, PR-Pronoun-antecedent agreement, SVA-Subject-verb agreement, H-Hyphenation error, or POV-Point of View shift. Be prepared to justify the corrections.

WAXING SKIS

Downhill skiing is one of the most popular sports in the world today, the retail ski business is now a multimillion-dollar enterprise. When skiers buy this expensive equipment, he should also be given waxing instructions to preserve the bases of the skis. The process of waxing downhill skis involves three basic steps.

First, the type of wax. Skiing temperature and snow conditions determines the type of wax to be used. The wax is usually color-coded, choosing wax for the temperature range is easy. Snow conditions vary according to temperature, so if the temperature range is appropriate, the snow conditions will also be right.

Applying the wax is the second step. It can eithier be applied by the hot wax technique or the rubbing technique. To hot wax skis, the wax is dripped onto the ski and spread with a hot iron. The result, is a thick, evenly spread wax. To rub the wax, apply it with a cork block or a cloth. The wax will not be as thick, but it can be applied on the slopes or anywhere

the skier does not have an iron. This method is especially good for touch-ups. Either method of application helps to protect your skis.

The last step in waxing is to buff the wax: After checking the groove and the edges to be sure they are cleaned out. The wax is buffed to a smooth finish with a soft cloth such as flannel or wool. This allows the skis to slide easier on the snow the skier should be careful about the excess speed generated tho.

IN SUMMARY:

A report can be easily written if it is approached in a step-by-step manner. First, the subject of the report is carefully limited so that it can be explained fully in the time or space allotted. Second, a thesis statement is formulated. Third, the thesis statement is broken down into main parts through use of an outline. This outline order is controlled by a pattern of arrangement. Fourth, the rough draft is written, and finally, this rough draft is revised, and the final copy is written.

UNIT IV: FINAL REPORT

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS:

When a report is transmitted to the person for whom it is intended, appearance is extremely important. The format that is followed in the final draft of the report to a large extent determines this appearance. Although formatting guidelines vary from organization to organization, general guidelines can be followed that are appropriate for most report writing.

Most important in the final draft presentation is neatness. Each page of the report should look like it is framed by the white margin of the paper. This emphasizes the content and makes it easier for the reader to peruse the report without becoming fatigued. The manuscript is double-spaced for this same reason. If headings are inserted in the report, they, too, should be set off through the use of white space. Effective use of space and overall carefulness in terms of spelling, hyphenation, and erasures will result in a report that is neat.

Another important consideration for the writer is the amount of information that is required by the person receiving the report. A title page is often used with reports that are submitted for educational purposes. Another consideration in the area of sufficient information is whether or not an outline is needed. If the report will be presented orally or if an outline is specifically requested, it should be included after the title page.

FORMATTING GUIDELINES:

On the next page are listed some general formatting guidelines. Some of them overlap with the checklist items included for the final draft.

1. Margins should be not less than 1" left, right, and bottom. Usually the page number appears at the 1" mark at the top, and the actual content starts at 1½". If the report is to be bound, an extra ½" is added to the left margin.
2. The report should begin with a title page which includes the title of the work, to whom it is presented, the name of the author, and the date.
3. The outline is inserted between the title page and the manuscript.
4. Headings, if used, should be set off from the manuscript by spacing and should be in all caps or underlined.
5. If footnotes are included, they should follow standard format and should be included at the end of the page where the information appears or at the end of the report.
6. Page numbers are placed in the upper right hand corner: down and one inch from the right edge of the page. They are not preceeded by "page" and are not followed by any punctuation. An alternate numbering technique is to center each page number one inch from the bottom of the page.
7. The title of the paper should appear on each new part that is included. For example, it appears once on the title page, once on the top of the outline, and once at the beginning of the manuscript. It is always in all caps, it is <u>not</u> underlined, and it should <u>not</u> be placed within quotation marks unless it is a <u>direct</u> quotation.

FINAL REPORT (This report may replace a final exam--possible 65% of total course grade.)

A final report must be written by each student in order to meet the objectives of this course. The following criteria are requirements which this report must satisfy. Following the formatting carefully is necessary to complete this course successfully.

I. Topic: The report should be on a subject for which the student has sufficient information without doing research.

A. The topic should concern some facet of the student's vocational program.
   1. He should select a topic that is broad enough to lend itself to development, and
   2. be specific enough to be of interest.

B. After the class discussion on how to select a topic, he should write a thesis statement.
   1. If the student has difficulty in determining a suitable topic, he should discuss the problem with the instructor.
   2. He may want to make an appointment with his instructor for extra help during office hours.

II. Mechanics: The paper should contain the following divisions in precisely this order:

A. The title page has three main divisions:
   1. The name of the paper is at the top.
      a. It is not underlined.
      b. It is not placed within quotes.
   2. The instructor, the school (or business) to whom the paper is presented, and the class and section number are in the middle.
   3. The name of the person who is presenting the paper appears at the bottom.
      a. This section includes the date.
      b. The date is placed under the author's name.

B. Outline page or pages follow the title page:
   1. The introduction is usually written in paragraph form.
   2. The body is outlined in complete sentences through the third division.
   3. The conclusion is usually written in paragraph form.

C. Manuscript body pages follow the outline pages:
   1. The outline is developed into paragraphs which make up the body of the report.
   2. The "body" of this paper must be a minimum of two typed pages and a maximum of five typed pages.
      a. All typing must be double-spaced and free of typing errors.
      b. Neat corrections are allowed if they are made in black ink.
      c. Adequate margins are required at the top, bottom, right and left of the pages.

The evaluation of this report will be based on word usage, spelling, sentence structure, organization, appearance, paragraph development, and topic content. This report is not placed in a folder; however it should be stapled in the upper left-hand corner before it is handed to the instructor. Also, since this report replaces the final exam for the course, it will not be returned to the student except for him to see the evaluation remarks. Therefore, if the student wishes to keep a copy, it should be made BEFORE it is handed to the instructor. Corrected reports cannot be copied.

(EXAMPLE: ANNOTATED STUDENT'S REPORT)

METHODS OF AUDIENCE SURVEY

Presented to (instructor)

Pikes Peak Community College

for Communication II

by

John Deaux

June 1, 198_

METHODS OF AUDIENCE SURVEY

No sample-based rating for television and/or radio is anything more than an estimate, no matter how careful the procedure or how large the sample. About fifty commercial rating firms rely on four principal data gathering techniques: telephone interviews, in-person interviews, viewer/listener diaries, and receiver-metering. Each method has its advantages and disadvantages, each its rival practitioners.

Thesis statement is part of introduction.

I. Telephone interviewing is the least utilized method of survey.

Roman numerals equal thesis.

A. Telephone surveys rely on telephone directories; therefore, they omit a substantial part of the population.
   1. Not everyone has a telephone.
   2. Not every telephone is listed.

Subheads + proofs = paragraph (add clincher)

B. Dependence on telephone directories is reduced by using "random digit dialing."
   1. Randomly selected four-digit numbers are added to known exchange numbers.
   2. Potential respondents are limited only to those persons having a telephone.

NOTICE: each entry is one complete sentence.

C. The chief method of telephone interviews is the coincidental telephone method.
   1. This consists of a question about viewing/listening now and the respondent's immediate reply.
   2. Coincidental telephone surveys require large samples.
      a. Respondents record what station or program that is on at the moment.
      b. Respondents record how many of what age groups and sex are present.
   3. Coincidental telephone surveys minimize respondent memory errors.

Proofs are "meat" of the report. They are the reasons for outlining.

II. Memory errors can be reduced by using the in-person interview technique.

Roman numerals can become transitions.

A. In-person interviews elicit more detailed background information.
   1. Information is recalled when the respondent is shown a list of stations and programs as a memory jogger.
   2. Information is elicited by observation and questioning.

NOTICE: each entry begins under the first letter of the first word above it.

B. In-person interview sample members are chosen at random.
   1. A grid pattern is imposed over a map of the survey area.
   2. Sample designs are often deterred by the sheer physical danger faced by the interviewers.

III. Week-long diaries are distributed to random respondents as another means of audience survey.

A. Diary-keepers are asked to record their viewing/listening experiences.
1. The time of viewing/listening is noted.
2. The station identification is requested.
3. Respondents are asked to record the place of viewing/listening as well.

B. Diary-keeping is somewhat less than ideal.
1. Some diary-keepers do not fill out the forms faithfully.
2. Eighty-five percent of designated sample homes accept diaries.
3. Only fifty-two percent of respondents return usable reports.

IV. Receiver-metering supplies an efficient, yet limited, audience survey.

A. This system enables the daily processing of data for national prime-time ratings.
1. The meter used for this survey is called an Audimeter.
2. Audimeters feed tuning information to an information storage component.
3. The stored information is delivered to the computer base.
a. Information is delivered on cue from the Nielson computer base.
b. Information is delivered via a special telephone wire network.

B. Receiver-metering data comes from fewer than 1,200 homes.
1. Installation and maintenance of the meters is extraordinarily expensive.
2. Samples are relatively permanent.

Whether the company uses the receiver-metering method, the telephone interview, the in-person interview, or the diary-keeping technique of audience survey, an almost unlimited variety of tailor-made reports can be obtained on order. They all supply both local and national ratings. However, all of the ratings gathered from these techniques must be considered as a scientific guesses and not taken too seriously!

This statement may seem a summary sentence or the conclusion.

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METHODS OF AUDIENCE SURVEY

No sample-based rating for television and/or radio is anything more than an estimate, no matter how careful the procedure or how large the sample. About fifty commercial rating firms rely on four principal data gathering techniques: telephone interviews, in-person interviews, viewer/listener diaries, and receiver-metering. Each method has its advantages and disadvantages, each its rival practitioners.

Of the four techniques, telephone interviewing is the least utilized method of survey. Most rating companies believe the hindrance of using telephone surveys to be that telephone directories omit a substantial part of the population. They realize that not everyone has a telephone in his home, and of those who do, not every phone is listed. This limits the number of potential respondents considerably.

In order to overcome this obstacle, various companies are using "random digit dialing." It has been found that a sample of telephone numbers can simply be made up by adding randomly selected four-digit numbers to known exchange numbers. Technically, this reduces the dependence on directories for interview respondents; therefore, potential respondents are limited only to those persons having telephones.

After having contacted a person, the telephone interviewer must devise a technique of obtaining a true survey. Here the chief method is called "the coincidental telephone method." This consists of a question about viewing/listening now and the respondent's immediate reply. Because only a small amount of information is elicited from each sample member, usually what station or program is on at the moment and how many people of what age groups and sex are present, coincidental telephone surveys

require a large sample. They do, however, minimize respondent memory errors, thus providing a more true survey.

Memory errors can also be partly reduced by using the in-person interview technique. With this method the respondent is shown a list of stations and progress as a memory jogger to help recall past listening or viewing. Person-to-person communication elicits more detailed background information by both observation and questioning than is feasible with other data gathering techniques.

Sample respondents for these person-to-person surveys are chosen at random by the researchers. A grid pattern is imposed over a map of the survey area that designates interview locations on the basis of randomly selected grid coordinates. In recent years, though, in-person fulfilling of such sample designs has been increasingly deterred by the sheer physical danger faced by the interviewers in some neighborhoods. Nevertheless, some rating companies still use in-person interviews for local rating reports.

Other companies distribute week-long diaries to random respondents as another means of audience survey. To obtain a detailed report, diary-keepers are asked to record their viewing/listening experiences on a daily basis. They are requested to note the time of viewing/listening, as well as the station identification. Although seemingly unimportant, the place of viewing/listening is also needed for a detailed report.

If it could be assumed that every diary-keeper filled out the form faithfully and promptly, this method would give a better picture of audience flow and composition than either telephone or in-phone interviews. But in practice, diary-keeping is somewhat less than ideal. Reports show that eighty-five percent of the designated sample homes accept diaries, but only fifty-two percent returned usable reports.

Receiver-metering, on the other hand, supplies an efficient, yet limited, audience survey. This system enables the daily processing of data for national prime-time ratings. The Nielson meter, trade named the Audimeter, feeds tuning information from all sets in homes to an information storage component. On cue from the Nielson computer base, the stored information at the individual home is delivered to the computer via a special telephone wire network.

These reports delivered to the computer come from fewer than twelve-hundred metered homes. This limit is imposed by the extraordinary expense of setting up a sample home for metering; the sample is relatively permanent, only a fifth of the members being replaced each year.

Whether the company uses the receiver-metering method, the telephone interview, the in-person interview, or the diary-keeping technique of audience survey, an almost unlimited variety of tailor-made reports can be obtained. They all supply both local and national ratings. However, all of the ratings gathered from these techniques must be considered as a scientific guesses and not taken too seriously!

(EXAMPLE: STUDENT'S REPORT)

THREE TYPES OF GUITARS

Presented to (instructor)

Pikes Peak Community College

for Communication II

by

Rick Taylor

June 3, 198_

THREE TYPES OF GUITARS

When a person is considering playing a musical instrument, the guitar should be considered. The versatility of the guitar makes it a very popular instrument today. One must consider what kind of guitar will best meet his needs before actually purchasing one. Personal taste should determine the guitarist's choice of instrument. Three of the more popular types of guitars used today are electric, western, and classical.

I. Electric guitars are the most versatile guitars.

   A. A person may find an electric guitarist playing several different types of music.
      1. Rock musicians prefer electric guitars.
      2. Rhythm and Blues music plays well on an electric guitar.
      3. Syncopated rhythms are used effectively on electric guitars in disco music.

   B. Different body styles and electronics give different tone quality to the electric guitar.
      1. The thick-bodied electric guitar is well suited for jazz guitarists.
      2. Amplifiers are used with the electric guitar to amplify the sound of the guitar.
      3. Pick-ups are metal devices on the guitar that pick up the sound of the strings.

II. One of the more popular guitars used today is the western guitar.

   A. The large size of the western guitar gives the guitar a full sound.
      1. Bluegrass guitarists will use a western guitar for its full volume without need for amplification.
      2. The western guitar is used commonly by western singers as a rhythm instrument.

   B. Western guitars are acoustic guitars.
      1. No amplification is needed.
      2. A microphone can be used in front of the guitar to increase its volume.

III. Classical guitars are usually limited to classical music.

   A. Classical music played on a classical guitar requires a great deal of practice.
      1. Ability to read music is preferable.
      2. Proper finger dexterity has to be developed.

B. The classical guitar is characterized by its high quality tone.
   1. Superior types of wood is used in making a classical guitar.
   2. Nylon strings are used instead of metal giving the guitar a resonant and mellow sound.
   3. Classical guitars, like the western guitars, are acoustic.

These guitars constitute three of the most popular types of guitars. Selecting the right guitar for a person's own purpose is important. Whil a guitarist playing in a loud nightclub may prefer the volume capability of the electric guitar, the acoustic sound of the western and classical guitars is appropriate in more quiet surroundings. Whether the musician decides to purchase an electric, western, or classical guitar, many hours of pleasure can be spent on the instrument.

THREE TYPES OF GUITARS

When a person is considering playing a musical instrument, the guitar should be considered. The versatility of the guitar makes it a very popular instrument today. One must consider what kind of guitar will best meet his needs before actually purchasing one. Personal taste should determine the guitarist's choice of instrument. Three of the more popular types of guitars used today are electric, western, and classical.

Of the three types, the electric guitars are the most versatile. Therefore, on a tour of various nightclubs around town a person may find an electric guitarist playing several different types of music. Rock and Roll musicians prefer electric guitars over acoustic guitars for its volume capabilities. Most rhythm and blues guitarists will use an electric guitar and adjust the guitar for a sustaining effect so widely used today. Syncopated rhythms are used effectively on electric guitars in disco music.

Moreover, the numerous different body styles and use of electronics give different tone quality to the electric guitar. The thick-bodied electric guitar is well suited for the jazz guitarists who appreciate the mellow resonance the thick body gives the guitar. In order to amplify the sound of the electric guitar, amplifiers are used along with pick-ups which are metal devices on the electric guitar that pick up the sound of the strings being picked. In contrast, western guitars need no amplification or pick-ups.

Western guitars are one of the more popular types of guitars because the large size of the western guitar gives the guitar a full sound. Bluegrass guitarists like to stay with the traditional idea of using no amplification in their music and therefore use a western guitar. Often western singers will use a western guitar as primarily a rhythm instrument.

Therefore, western guitars are considered acoustic guitars for the reason that no amplification is necessarily needed. However, in the case that more volume is desired, a microphone can be used in front of the guitar. Whereas solo work is not done often on western guitars, classical guitars are very well suited for it.

Classical guitars are usually limited to classical music and can be the most expensive guitars. Moreover, classical music on a classical guitar requires much time and practice. The ability to read music is very time consuming and is preferable in playing the classical guitar. Proper finger dexterity is also a talent which takes considerable time to develop. Even the slightest inaccuracy in the pressing of the strings to the fretboard can result in depriving the classical guitar of its high quality tone.

The classical guitar is characterized by its high quality tone. Superior types of wood are used in making a classical guitar to insure the quality and resonance of the tone. Nylon strings are used instead of the metal strings common to other types of guitars adding to the resonant and mellow sound. Like the western guitar, the classical guitar is an acoustic guitar and needs no amplification.

These guitars constitute three of the more popular types of guitars. Selecting the right guitar for a person's own purpose is important. While a guitarist playing in a loud nightclub may prefer the volume capability of the electric guitar, the acoustic sound of the western and classical guitars is more appropriate in more quiet surroundings. Whether the musician decides to purchase an electric, western, or classical guitar, many hours of pleasure can be spent on the instrument.

ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE
FOR JUNIOR COLLEGES
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